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Climate change and neurodegenerative diseases

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Abstract:	<p>The climate change induced global warming, and in particular the increased frequency and intensity of heat waves, have been linked to health problems. Among them, scientific works have been reporting an increased incidence of neurological diseases, encompassing also neurodegenerative ones, such as Dementia of Alzheimer's type, Parkinson's Disease, and Motor Neuron Diseases.</p> <p>Although the increase in prevalence of neurodegenerative diseases is well documented by literature reports, the link between global warming and the enhanced prevalence of such diseases still remains elusive. This is the main theme of our work, which aims to examine the connection between high temperature exposure and neurodegenerative diseases. Firstly, we evaluate the influence of high temperatures exposure on the pathophysiology of these disorders. Secondly, we discuss its effects on the thermoregulation, already compromised in affected patients, and its interference with processes of excitotoxicity, oxidative stress and neuroinflammation - all of them related with neurodegeneration. Finally, we investigate chronic versus acute stressors on body warming, and put forward a possible interpretation of the beneficial or detrimental effects on the brain, which is responsible for the incidence or progression of neurological disorders.</p>
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Dear Prof. Domingo,

We would be pleased to present our Review “Climate change and neurodegenerative diseases” for publication on “Environmental Research”.

All of the Authors have read and approved the paper and it has not been published previously nor is it being considered by any other peer-reviewed journal.

Hoping you will find it suitable for publication,

Yours sincerely.

Renata Del Carratore

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Climate change and neurodegenerative diseases.

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Abstract

The climate change induced global warming, and in particular the increased frequency and intensity of heat waves, have been linked to health problems. Among them, scientific works have been reporting an increased incidence of neurological diseases, encompassing also neurodegenerative ones, such as Dementia of Alzheimer's type, Parkinson's Disease, and Motor Neuron Diseases. Although the increase in prevalence of neurodegenerative diseases is well documented by literature reports, the link between global warming and the enhanced prevalence of such diseases still remains elusive. This is the main theme of our work, which aims to examine the connection between high temperature exposure and neurodegenerative diseases. Firstly, we evaluate the influence of high temperatures exposure on the pathophysiology of these disorders. Secondly, we discuss its effects on the thermoregulation, already compromised in affected patients, and its interference with processes of excitotoxicity, oxidative stress and neuroinflammation - all of them related with neurodegeneration. Finally, we investigate chronic versus acute stressors on body warming, and put forward a possible interpretation of the beneficial or detrimental effects on the brain, which is responsible for the incidence or progression of neurological disorders.

Key words: climate change and health, global warming; neuroinflammation; neurodegeneration; oxidative stress; excitotoxicity

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Declaration of competing interest:

The Authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

1 **1 Clinical impacts of exposures to high temperature linked to climate change**

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6 The Earth climate is warming, sea-ice and glaciers are melting quickly, and sea-level is rising fast
7 (IPCC, 2019). Strong evidence of this warming comes for 2020, which was the warmest year on
8 record since 1979 in terms of average global temperature (a-par with 2016), and the warmest ever
9 for Europe (WMO, 2021). Considering Europe, 2020 follows 2019, the second warmest year on
10 record, and 12 of the 13 warmest years have occurred since 2000 (C3S, 2020). In terms of global
11 average surface temperature, with respect to the pre-industrial value, in 2020 the Earth global mean
12 temperature was about 1.3°C warmer, with an accelerating warming trend which stands at about
13 0.2°C per decade. Although the warming is a global phenomenon, its intensity has not been
14 spatially uniform: for example, nowadays the European average surface warming is about 2°C, and
15 the average warming of the countries facing the Mediterranean Sea is about 3°C (IPCC, 2014;
16 IPCC, 2018; IPCC, 2019), compared to the 1.3°C increase of the global average temperature. This
17 average warming is associated also with more frequent and more intense heat waves (Table 1),
18 especially during the summer months, increased evaporation and reduced soil moisture, which lead
19 to more frequent and longer drought episodes with a clear impact on agriculture and farming.

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21 Increased temperatures and especially more frequent, prolonged and intense heat waves, affect
22 human and animal health. During the August 2003 European heat wave, one of the hottest August
23 on record for many countries (Schaer and Jendritzky, 2004), for example, there have been reports of
24 more than 20,000 deaths: ~15,000 people died in France, ~ 2,000 in the UK, ~ 2,100 in Portugal,
25 ~3,100 in Italy, ~ 1,500 in Holland and ~ 300 in Germany (UKMO, 2003). Rivers (e.g. the Danube,
26 the Seine) fell to their lowest levels, causing disruption in electricity production, thus making it
27 difficult for some areas to have access to enough electricity to be able to cool down buildings.
28 Forest fires broke down in many countries (e.g. in Portugal, more than 200,000 hectares were
29 destroyed). As for other extreme events, the link between heat waves and man-induced climate
30 change was studied for the 2003 event: Stott et al. (2004) concluded that, at a confidence level of
31 greater than 90%, more than half of the risk of 2003-like extreme European summers is attributable
32 to human influences on the climate system.

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34 Climate projections indicate that, if we continue to emit greenhouse gases as we have done in the
35 past decades, the world will warm even further the limit of the 1.5°C warming that countries
36 pledged not to surpass at the United Nations Conference of the Parties of 2015 in Paris (IPCC,
37 2018; COP21, 2015). As a consequence, future generations will be facing even more critical
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1 situations than those that we have been witnessing in the last years: the European heatwaves of
2 2003 (Della Marta et al., 2007), the Australian fires of the end of 2019 and the beginning of 2020,
3 the US west-coast fires on summer 2020, the extreme water levels in Venice of 2019, extreme
4 storms like the tempest Vaia that hit the Dolomites in 2018, drought and landslides that annually
5 affect many countries. Global average warmings are projected to reach about 2.5°C if emissions
6 continue to rise at the current level, following the projections represented by the IPCC
7 Representative Concentration Pathway 6.0 (RCP6.0). As the warming continues, glaciers will be
8 melting and the sea-ice will continue to rise. Unfortunately, recent reports of the status of the Arctic
9 (in October and November 2020, the sea-ice extent reached the lowest extension for those months,
10 and in September 2020 was very close to the minimum observed in 2012) and the Greenland ice-
11 sheet suggest that the warming is accelerating.

12 In the past decade, an increasing number of studies have been investigating the health effects of
13 the exposure to high temperatures, or to sudden large temperature changes, especially among
14 older populations (Zanobetti et al., 2012; Shi et al., 2015; Shi et al., 2016; Andrews et al., 2018).
15 They have reported that the health impact of prolonged heat exposure includes heat stress, heat
16 exhaustion, heat stroke, hyperthermia and multiorgan-dysfunction syndrome (Table 1). A World
17 Health Organization (WHO, 2020) assessment concluded that climate change is expected to cause
18 approximately 250,000 additional deaths per year between 2030 and 2050; 38,000 due to heat
19 exposure in elderly people. Prolonged exposure to heat might also result in additional diseases
20 and death, by exacerbating pre-existing chronic conditions such as various cardiovascular
21 (Gostimirovic et al., 2020) and neurological diseases (Gulcebi et al., 2021). It can also increase
22 the risk for patients taking psychotropic drug treatment for mental disorders, due to the body's
23 impaired ability to regulate temperature (Chesire, 2016).

24 Neurological disorders are increasingly recognised worldwide as major causes of death and
25 disability. Globally, neurological disorders were, after cardiovascular diseases, the second cause of
26 death and the main cause of disability-adjusted life-years (DALYs) in 2016: around 280 million
27 patients in the world with a fatal outcome for 9 million of them (Feigin et al., 2019). The absolute
28 number of deaths and DALYs from all neurological disorders combined increased between 1990
29 and 2016, and the burden of neurological disorders continues to increase.

30 An improved understanding of altered pathways and biomarkers during global warming exposure
31 will contribute to the identification of effective prevention and control measures in patients with
32 neurological diseases, and particularly with neurodegenerative diseases, where a likely genetic
33 predisposition to abiotrophy can be associated with an acquired damage resulting from chronic
34 exposure to heat (Peinkhofer, et al., 2020). Unfortunately, how heat exposure can directly modulate

1 human neuronal pathways is still far to be understood. Therefore, the need to acquire better
2 understanding on biomedical alterations and diseases linked to climate change, and in particular
3 global warming, is becoming extremely important.
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5 In this review, we describe clinical features, the epidemiology and the neuropathology of the main
6 neurodegenerative disorders and hints on altered thermoregulation. Moreover, we review the main
7 results reported in recent literature on the effects of heat influences on neurodegenerative diseases'
8 pathophysiological mechanisms. The relevance of the heat stress toward the main processes of
9 excitotoxicity, oxidative stress and neuroinflammation will also be discussed.
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16 **2 Neurodegenerative disorders**

17 *2.1 Dementia of Alzheimer's type*

18 Dementia of Alzheimer's type (DAT) is known to be the most predominant cause of dementia
19 among the aged people associated with subsequent behavioral disturbances, and clinically
20 characterized by cognitive impairment and the limitation of daily activities (Scheltens et al., 2016).
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22 The number of DAT patients was 20.2 million in 1990, whereas it reached 43.8 million in 2016: an
23 increase of approximately 120%, contrasted only by a slight increase in age-standardised prevalence
24 of about 2% (Nichols et al., 2019). In 2016, DAT was globally the 5th leading cause of death, with
25 2.4 million deaths: overall, around 30 million DALYs were attributed to DAT.
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28 DAT, as well as Parkinson's Disease (PD) and Amyotrophic Lateral Sclerosis (ALS)/Motor Neuron
29 Diseases (MND), are neuropathologically characterized by protein misfolding and aggregation into
30 cells or into extracellular deposits - hallmarks of neurodegenerative disorders (Lim, 2019; Medinas
31 et al., 2019). Newly synthesized proteins must be folded to form their proper three-dimensional
32 structures. Several types of stress elicit perturbation to protein folding, thereby leading to the
33 overwhelming precipitation of misfolded or aggregated proteins. The aggregation can be a random
34 event implying protein hyperphosphorylation, resulting from the following pathways: prion self-
35 catalytic conformational conversion, mutations altering the protein stability, and uncontrolled
36 pathological increase in the intracellular content of these selected proteins. Such imbalances in
37 protein concentration can be a consequence of mutations such as duplications of the amyloidogenic
38 gene or changes in the protein's amino acid sequence. Imbalances can be caused also by
39 deficiencies in the proteasome, the cellular machinery involved in the degradation of aging proteins
40 (Sweeney, et al., 2017).
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58 Neuropathologically, DAT is characterised by the presence of extracellular amyloid plaques
59 containing amyloid β (A β) peptide, and intracellular neurofibrillary tangles (NFTs) composed of
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1 hyperphosphorylated Tau protein. The A β peptides responsible for plaques formation are derived by
2 the cleavage of A β precursor protein produced by the amyloidogenic pathway, and the main
3 mutations related with the disease dramatically dictate the proteolytic processing by β - and γ -
4 secretases (Lim, 2019; Webers et al., 2020): several studies indicate that the presence of A β could
5 be a consequence of molecular events in the DAT cascade rather than the cause of
6 neurodegeneration itself (Mecocci, 2018). Tau is a microtubule-binding protein abundant into the
7 central nervous system (CNS) and when hyperphosphorylated is converted into the pathological
8 form that is aggregated into insoluble NFTs (Webers et al., 2020).

9 DAT patients have been found to have significant circadian dysfunction in core body temperature,
10 which may precede clinical onset. Since disease severity might be related to the extent of circadian
11 dysfunction (Coogan et al., 2013; Knight et al., 2013), dementia bearing people would be
12 reasonably more affected by the phenomenon of global warming. A metabolic hypothesis has
13 suggested that there is a significant correlation between risk factors, including body temperature,
14 and DAT onset (Whittington et al., 2010). Several findings put forward the hypothesis of a
15 correlation between age-related alteration in temperature homeostasis and dysregulation of Tau
16 phosphorylation in DAT (Whittington et al., 2010; Carrettiero et al., 2015; Keil et al., 2015).

30 2.2 Parkinson's Disease

31 PD is a chronic and progressive neurodegenerative disorder. Tremor, bradykinesia-akinesia and
32 rigidity, depression and other non-motor symptoms, as well as cognitive dysfunctions, often occur
33 in the course of PD.

34 In 2016, more than 6 million subjects were affected by PD globally, while they were only 2.5
35 million in 1990 (Dorsey et al., 2018). PD caused about 212,000 deaths and more than 3-million
36 DALYs in 2016. Nowadays the global PD burden has more than doubled, when compared with the
37 past century, due to an increase in the number of elderly people, with potential contributions from
38 longer disease duration and environmental factors. Demographic and other factors are expected to
39 determine a dramatic increase in the future PD burden (Dorsey et al., 2018).

40 Misfolded forms of alpha-synuclein (α -syn) represent the PD neuropathological hallmark and are
41 associated with the formation of Lewy Bodies (LBs) into *substantia nigra* neurons (Kim et al.,
42 2014; Power et al., 2017). Different models were proposed to explain the formation of α -syn
43 aggregates in PD (Liu et al., 2012b, Kim et al., 2014). Increased "normal" α -syn itself associated
44 with post-translational modifications as phosphorylation may lead to toxicity. Moreover, a plethora
45 of α -syn genes supports α -syn overproduction followed by aggregation. The failure of protein
46 quality control systems, such as ubiquitin-proteasome system or lysosomal degradation (e.g.,
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1 autophagy-lysosomal pathway), promotes the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) stress with consequent
2 accumulation of misfolded proteins that may form toxic proteins, like α -syn oligomers (Valdinocci
3 et al., 2017).
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5 PD patients may exhibit a spectrum of thermoregulatory symptoms, which can be exacerbated by
6 heat stress and heat waves. Thermoregulatory dysfunction in PD patients has been observed mainly
7 as excessive sweating and vasomotor abnormalities such as episodes of intermittent hyperhidrosis,
8 night sweats or hypohidrosis, which are secondary consequences due to neurodegeneration
9 processes (Coon, E.A., et al., 2020). Pathological involvement of the hypothalamus due to the
10 formation of LBs has been reported in PD patients (Orimo et al., 2008). Furthermore, α -syn-
11 containing LBs were found in the medulla, co-localized with tyrosine hydroxylase, thus
12 highlighting the involvement of sympathetic nuclei (Kingsbury et al., 2010). Indeed, in PD, apart
13 from the LB formation, small- and large-fiber peripheral neuropathies represent a common
14 complication (Doppler et al., 2014). In the early stages of the disease small-fiber neuropathies can
15 be associated with impaired thermoregulation, as autonomic innervation of blood vessels, sweat
16 glands, and erector pili muscles is reduced (Podgorny et al., 2016). Beside the fact that α -syn
17 accumulation in sympathetic ganglia is associated with central thermoregulatory alteration in PD, l-
18 dopa treatment might be a potential cause of neuropathy that is observed in late-onset disease and is
19 relevant in patients exposed to l-dopa (Ceravolo et al., 2013).
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32 An interpretative model for thermal regulation in PD patients brains has been proposed by Chen et
33 al (2020) and is based on mitochondrial dysfunction as neuroinflammatory trigger for oxidative
34 stress, thus resulting in cell death, lower metabolism and lower intraventricular temperature.
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40 *2.3 Amyotrophic Lateral Sclerosis/Motor Neuron Diseases*

41 MNDs, leading to progressive muscle weakness and atrophy, are a group of neurodegenerative
42 disorders, which include ALS, primary lateral sclerosis, hereditary spastic paraplegia, pseudobulbar
43 palsy, spinal muscular atrophy and progressive muscular atrophy. MNDs lead to progressive muscle
44 weakness and atrophy related to upper and lower motor neuron involvement. Namely, they are
45 related with the degeneration of pyramidal neurons in the motor cortex, cranial motor neurons and
46 anterior horn cells in the spinal cord. In 2016, globally, about 331,000 subjects have received a
47 MND diagnosis: there were more than 925,000 DALYs and almost 35,000 deaths. The worldwide
48 prevalence for all ages was 4.5 per 100,000 people, with an age-standardised prevalence increase of
49 4.5%; the all-age incidence was 0.78 per 100,000 person-years (Logroscino et al., 2018). In
50 ALS/MND protein misfolding has been included among the pathogenic factors responsible for
51 neuronal death. The main mutations were observed in superoxide dismutase (SOD)1 gene, and
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1 SOD1 aggregates were localized into the ER, giving rise to protein aggregate overexpression and
2 activating the unfolded protein response (UPR) to restore ER proteostasis (Medinas et al., 2019).

3 Interestingly, ALS/MND induced pluripotent stem cell-derived motor neurons carrying mutations in
4 SOD1 displayed an increase in insoluble proteins, as the SOD1 (Seminary et al., 2018).

5 Concerning with temperature dependent variables, the well-known ALS/MND hypermetabolic state
6 may contribute to thermoregulatory defects: intrinsic metabolic abnormalities in skeletal muscle
7 represent a possible cause of energy dissipation, and might compromise the thermoregulatory
8 balance (Bouteloup et al., 2009). It is interesting to report that on the Island of Guam some people
9 are affected by an endemic ALS form intermingled with other motor syndromes (the so-called
10 Guamanian ALS). It was discovered an altered variant of the heat receptor (transient receptor
11 potential cation channel, subfamily M (melastatin), member 2 -TRPM2), implicated in central heat
12 sensation (Hermosura et al., 2008). The relevance of TRPM2 or other central thermoreceptors has
13 not been further substantiated since the discovery reported above (Song et al., 2016).

14 Despite the current lack of information on the involvement of thermoregulatory hypothalamic
15 centers in ALS/MND patients, a 15% reduction in hypothalamic volume in a magnetic resonance
16 imaging study of 270 patients, compared to age- and sex-matched controls, was observed (Gorges et
17 al., 2017). Altered melanocortin pathway is consistent with the metabolic abnormalities present in
18 ALS/MND patients (Huisman et al., 2015) and in animal models (Dupuis et al., 2004). In the
19 hypothalamus of the human SOD1 mutated transgenic mouse (an animal model for ALS/MND), an
20 impaired melanocortin tone was correlated to the increased agouti-related protein levels in the
21 arcuate nucleus (Vercruysse et al., 2016).

22 Deranged raphe pallidus serotonergic receptors might also participate to the altered
23 thermoregulatory defect in ALS/MND patients: brainstem serotonergic neurons degenerate in
24 patients as well as in animal models (Dentel et al., 2013), promoting muscle hypertonia (El Oussini
25 et al., 2017). Remarkably, peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor gamma coactivator 1- α (PGC-
26 1 α) has been linked to defective thermoregulation via its muscle-specific effects: polymorphisms in
27 the PGC-1 α encoding gene are associated with age at onset and survival of male ALS/MND
28 patients (Eschbach et al., 2013), as well as with patients' response to exercise (Pasquinelli et al.,
29 2016). Anyway, further work is needed to determine the exact role of PGC-1 α to abnormal energy
30 metabolism and defective thermoregulation during disease progression.

3 General heat effects on neuronal system

Heat stress has multiple effects on living organisms. Despite specific studies are still limited, it is emerging the concept that prolonged exposure to high temperatures is the common element for diverse pathophysiological changes, including neuronal damage (Lee et al., 2015; Chauhan et al., 2017). Heat stress prompted hyperthermia, once considered as non-toxic in the mammalian nervous system, produces specific modifications in the CNS that may have long-term neuropathological, functional and behavioural consequences. Because of the recent consideration of heat stress impact on neuronal cell degeneration, chronic heat stress due to global warming might be critical for the development of neurodegenerative disorders (Habibi and Perry, 2014; O'Donnell, 2018).

Since the CNS is the interaction hub of a living body with the environmental domain, the neurobiological implications of climate change are paramount features for the comprehension of human adaption to the increasing temperature trend. Indeed, it emerges that on animal models climate warming can alter gene expression, neuronal structure and brain organization (Amiel et al., 2017; Pallotta et al., 2017). Structural changes due to exposure of rats to heat (37-40 °C) have been observed in neurons and their axons, in the glia and in the cerebral vascular endothelium (Sharma and Hoopes, 2009). Heat stress compromises the blood-brain barrier with an increase in its permeability and development of cerebral edema in rats (Sharma et al., 2010). In mice with mild traumatic brain injury, exposed to hyperthermia, long-term memory and learning deficits are observed (Titus et al., 2015). Moreover, climate warming affects animal learning ability (Dayananda and Webb, 2017). In humans, environmental hyperthermia (50°C) has been shown to impair functional connectivity of the brain, with alterations in cognitive and work performance (Sun et al., 2013), as well as in short-term visual memory (Jiang et al., 2013). Ten studies investigated the effects of high environmental temperatures on demented patients (Wei, 2019; Peinkhofer et al., 2020): in 8 of them enhanced temperatures were associated with worsening of symptoms (including agitation) and increased rates of hospitalization and mortality. Two studies evaluated the effects of high temperatures on PD patients (Zanobetti et al., 2013; Linares, 2016). Although the former in a large number of PD patients in extremely hot days (maximum temperature of 31,7°C) found no association between mortality and environmental temperatures (Zanobetti et al., 2013), the latter indicated a correlation between high environmental temperature (>34°C) and an increase risk of excess morbidity and mortality in PD patients (Linares, 2016). All those findings highlight how heat waves may worsen neurological symptoms or be considered as risk factor that, to some extent, contributes to the boost in both morbidity and mortality associated with high temperatures. Moreover, it is well established that with advancing age and facing longer lasting life expectation,

1 body temperature physiologically decreases (Lu et al., 2010; Waalen and Buxbaum, 2011) and
2 becomes progressively more variable, as a probable result of thermoregulatory failure (Tan et
3 al.,2020; Cheshire, 2016). Therefore, the response to heat is further worsened and likely promote a
4 vicious circle in the progression of neuronal impairment and demise. Brain temperature is regulated
5 by various factors, such as metabolism, body temperature, blood flow, and by heat shock proteins
6 (HSP), important molecular components which are activated when the temperature rises. In
7 humans, for whom aging is also associated with cerebral hypometabolism that promotes cognitive
8 impairment (Cunnane et al., 2011) heat might induce a brain temperature derangement associated
9 with a significant reduction in neuron basal metabolism (Kiyatkin, 2019). In neurodegenerative
10 disorders, brain temperature might be affected by enhanced oxidative stress and neuroinflammatory
11 processes, which can significantly interfere with it (Iodice et al., 2011; Rango et al., 2014). Relevant
12 information might derive from the study of how molecular components, such as HSP or misfolded
13 proteins, and neurodegeneration mechanisms, such as **excitotoxicity, oxidative stress and**
14 **neuroinflammation** are influenced by environmental temperature (Fig.1).
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27 **4 Pathogenetic pathways and biomarkers related to global warming/heat stress effects.**

28 29 30 *4.1 Heat stress and misfolded proteins*

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33 Different types of stress, including heat stress, may cause protein misfolding, thereby producing
34 enhanced amounts of aggregated proteins, which are then degraded through proteasomal and
35 lysosomal pathways (Vabulas et al., 2010). In animal models, hyperthermia could cause a molecular
36 phenotype similar to DAT with upregulation of A β expression and phosphorylated Tau deposition
37 (Sinigaglia-Coimbra et al., 2002). It has also been shown that slight variations in temperature might
38 considerably change the folding of A β and accelerate the aggregation process (Ghavami et al.,
39 2013). Nevertheless, some studies indicate that induced-hypothermia (such as after anesthesia) is
40 associated with a significant increase of hyperphosphorylated Tau (Planel et al., 2004) contained in
41 the intracellular NFTs, and higher values of ambient temperature have been suggested in helping
42 mitigate dementia symptoms by reducing the production of A β peptides (Vandal et al., 2016).
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51 Up to date, still inconsistent and poorly understood results are reported on the effects of temperature
52 on phosphorylated Tau (Carrettiero et al., 2015) leading to the conclusion that these proteins might
53 have heat sensitive properties. In addition, misfolded protein accumulation and aggregates
54 formation in neurodegenerative diseases (DAT, PD and ALS/MND) upregulate pro-inflammatory
55 molecules (Stephenson et al., 2018).
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4.2 Heat shock proteins

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2 HSPs have evolved to protect the organisms from thermal stress (Singh et al., 2013; Miller and Fort,
3 2018). They play a crucial role in the folding of nascent chain peptides, in the translocation of
4 proteins across the membrane and in their protection from the effects of high temperature
5 (Katschinski et al., 2004). Some HSPs are located on the membrane of extracellular vesicles
6 released from macrophages after heat stress (Fukuoka et al., 2014). During cell exposure to
7 warming, HSP are immediately activated to function as molecular chaperons for restoring the
8 normal fold of heat-denatured proteins (Miller and Fort, 2018). HSPs help in protecting neurons
9 from the aggregation of toxic misfolded proteins: therefore, their malfunction or exhaustion might
10 contribute to the pathogenesis of neurodegenerative disorders (Malyshev, 2013).

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12 The cellular reaction to heat stress and protein misfolded activates the UPR that triggers to ER
13 sensory proteins and the mitochondrial unfolded protein response pathway that, in turn, up-regulates
14 HSPs, such as HSP-10, HSP-60 and HSP-70 (Homma et al., 2016; Ji et al., 2020; Salminen et al.,
15 2020). Exposure of cortical neurons to heat causes ER stress, inhibiting protective feedback to heat
16 shock (Liu et al., 2012a) and enabling autophagy to take place (Kabir et al., 2018). Therefore, an
17 UPR dysregulation causes a lack of induction of autophagy which fails to eradicate the
18 accumulation of “contagious” proteins (such as A β) and then consequently leads to
19 neurodegenerative diseases (Kabir et al., 2018).

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21 Nevertheless, accumulating evidence indicates that autophagy operates as a double-edged sword,
22 with appropriate activation of the autophagic pathway playing a cytoprotective role under
23 pathological conditions, but overstimulation or suppression of autophagy results in amplification of
24 pathological lesions via the induction of autophagy-dependent programmed cell death. An
25 increasing number of studies shows that the dysregulation of autophagy is closely linked with the
26 occurrence and progression of neurodegenerative diseases (Yan and Xu, 2020).

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28 A distinctive feature of heat-induced mitochondrial dysfunction, the irreversible mitochondrial
29 membrane potential depolarization, with subsequent lacking of HSP production, causes misfolded
30 protein accumulation and apoptotic signaling activation. This evidence has been proposed as the
31 potential mechanism of hyperthermia-induced death of cultured rat neurons (White et al., 2012).

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33 In DAT patients, A β and Tau accumulation and deposition are associated with impairment or loss
34 of function in the HSP-60, direct consequence of the oxidative and/or heat stress (Campanella et al.,
35 2018). The upregulation of UPR phosphorylated markers was detected in DAT patients’ neurons,
36 thus demonstrating a higher level of heat shock response (HSR) activation (Salminen et al., 2020).

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38 Alpha-syn overexpressing neuronal cells exposed to heat stress (50°C) did not display aggregate
39 assembly, as α -syn remained in the monomeric form (Fragniere et al., 2019). However, the role of
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1 HSP and the HSR is crucial for a correct response to α -syn aggregates since HSP-70 is able to
2 induce α -syn degradation through the HSP-mediated autophagy-lysosomal pathway (Jones et al.,
3 2014). As far as MND is concerned, SOD1 cells exposed to heat stress (42°C for one hour)
4 exhibited transcript levels of HSP-B1 and HSP-B8 and phosphorylated heat shock factor-1 (HSF-1)
5 protein levels significantly higher compared with the unstressed state. This suggests the crucial role
6 of the heat stress in the modulation of the protective HSR (Qu et al., 2018).
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10 **5 Heat-modulated excitotoxicity, oxidative stress and neuroinflammation**

11 *5.1 Excitotoxicity*

12 Excitotoxicity is a complex process triggered by an excess in excitatory amino acid (e.g., glutamate
13 and aspartate) receptor activation. This process provokes a certain number of deleterious
14 consequences, including impairment of calcium buffering, generation of free radicals, activation of
15 the mitochondrial permeability transition pore, dendrites degeneration, and ultimately cell death. All
16 the subcellular compartments are affected by the excitotoxic process, with changes in the cytosol,
17 mitochondria, ER, and nucleus being pivotal. Excitotoxicity can damage neurons upon metabolic
18 and oxidative stress conditions, which occur after a stroke episode, a traumatic brain injury or in
19 age-related neurodegenerative disorders, and seems to play a significant role in heat-induced brain
20 damage (Ruszkiewicz et al., 2019). In rats, heat stress (38°C) significantly intensified the levels of
21 brain excitotoxic neurotransmitters glutamate and aspartate, whereas concentrations of inhibitory
22 neurotransmitters gamma-aminobutyric acid (GABA) and glycine were reduced, with a shift to
23 excitatory neurotransmitters causing enhanced neurodegeneration (Sharma, 2006). Such findings
24 are related with decreased hippocampal GABAergic synaptic transmission (Qu et al., 2007).
25 Systemic glutamate levels were downregulated in rats exposed to mild hyperthermia (37-39 °C),
26 whereas further heating (42 °C) significantly elevated circulating glutamate concentrations (Zlotnik
27 et al., 2010). Moreover, glutamatergic down-regulation resulted in a protective effect in acclimation
28 (Ely et al., 2015). Hyperthermia was shown to cause depolarization together with increased synaptic
29 activity of hippocampal pyramidal cells, being also indicative of higher brain excitability (Kim and
30 Connors, 2012). Furthermore, the resulting impaired Ca^{++} homeostasis at synaptic level may also
31 add its contribution to neuronal damage under heat exposure (White et al., 2012). Hyperthermic-
32 dependent Ca^{++} dysregulation has also been found in pathogenetic mechanisms of other systems,
33 like endothelial cells (Li et al., 2015), which may exert the function in impaired cerebrovascular
34 reactivity at heat stress exposure (Ruszkiewicz et al., 2019).
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5.2 *Oxidative stress*

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Neuronal oxidative stress identifies a serial of biochemical processes with possible dramatic consequences on cerebral metabolism. Oxidative stress occurs upon excessive free radical production resulting from an insufficient antioxidant response system. Such an imbalance between antioxidant activity and reactive oxygen species (ROS) production has a direct effect on the accumulation of free radicals, mitochondrial dysfunction, and neuronal injury during the progression of age-related neurodegenerative diseases, linked to cellular failure in keeping constant the redox balance (Adibhatla and Hatcher, 2010). Thus, heat stress induces mitochondrial dysfunction and oxidative stress in neurons (Akbarian et al., 2016). High temperature exposure has a relevant influence in boosting mitochondrial superoxide anion levels (Mujahid et al., 2007) and decreasing the expression and activity of the antioxidant SOD in neuronal cells with fatal outcome for neuronal structures (El-Orabi et al., 2011). Furthermore, heat stress is known to induce mitochondrial dysfunction in cultured rat central neurons, expressed by large number of mitochondrial fragments (White et al., 2012; Yu et al., 2015). That situation causes dysfunction of the mitochondrial electron transport chain (ETC) resulting in increased superoxide and further increase in ROS production (Zorov et al., 2014; Yu et al., 2015). Heat-induced ROS accumulation within mitochondria has a negative influence on the oxidation of ETC components, including lipids, proteins, and DNA, and causes mitochondrial outer membrane permeabilization with release of proapoptotic factors and irreversible activation of apoptotic signalling (Wang et al., 2013). Thus, mitochondrial dysfunction, apoptosis and oxidative stress with ER oxidation may underlie heat-induced neurodegeneration. These observations are in agreement with the occurrence of tight interplay between ER and oxidative stress in brain pathology (Thornton et al., 2017). Therefore, heat stress is interpreted as an environmental pro-oxidant factor (Slimen et al., 2014). As a matter of fact, exposure to heat (44 °C) has been shown to trigger cerebral oxidative stress and Tau pathology in laboratory rodents (Chauderlier et al., 2017; Chauhan et al., 2017), confirming the link between hyperthermia and neurodegeneration.

5.3 *Neuroinflammation*

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Exposure to high temperature deeply alters the immune system of animals (Dahl et al., 2020) acting as a physiological input for inflammatory/immune response (Suzuki et al., 2020). The immune response aims to defend an organism against foreign aggressors. The potential pathogens include living organisms such as microorganisms, viruses, bacteria, parasites, and fungi or chemico-

1 physical agents. Two distinct immune responses have been identified, the innate and the adaptive
2 ones, which cooperate to protect against pathogens. The innate immune response is known to be a
3 non-specific and quick response to any sort of pathological agents, by activation of immune cells
4 such as neutrophils, macrophages, and monocytes, and soluble factors including cytokines. The
5 adaptive response, provided against specific antigens, encompasses cells such as dendritic cells, T
6 and B cells, as well as antibodies, known as immunoglobulins, which directly interact with
7 antigens. The communication between immune and inflammatory cells is mediated in large part by
8 a subset of cytokines known as interleukins (IL) which consist of more than 40 different proteins
9 that can elicit many reactions in cells and tissues by binding to high-affinity cell receptors. The
10 majority of ILs are synthesized by helper CD4⁺ T lymphocytes, as well as by monocytes,
11 macrophages, and endothelial cells. Cytokines play essential roles in the activation and
12 differentiation of immune cells (such as T and B lymphocytes), as well as their proliferation,
13 maturation, migration, and adhesion. They also have pro-inflammatory (IL-1, IL-12, tumor necrosis
14 factor (TNF α), interferon (IFN) γ) and anti-inflammatory (IL-10, IL-15, IL- 18, and IFN β)
15 properties (Dantzer, 2018). Bidirectional communication between the peripheral immune system
16 and the CNS may be a complex mechanism by which resident brain cells are stimulated to produce
17 cytokines (mainly IL-1 β , IL-6 and TNF- α). The neuroimmune system consists of glial cells
18 (astrocytes, oligodendrocytes and microgliaocytes), brain macrophages and resident/circulating
19 lympho/monocytes collectively called “neuroimmunocytes”.

20 The release of inflammatory molecules may play a significant role in neurological disorders
21 (Alinejad et al., 2020) and can provide protection to CNS (e.g. removal of cell debris or secretion of
22 neurotrophic factors), although it might implicate harmful effects, as inflammatory mediators can be
23 recruited for the neurodegenerative pathway (Kempuraj et al., 2016; Calabrese et al., 2018).

24 Immediately after an acute brain injury or infection, neuroinflammation ensures the efficient
25 immune response, eliminating cellular debris and pathogens as a precursor to permitting tissue
26 repair and regeneration. Similarly, in chronic neurodegenerative diseases, such as protein-
27 misfolding disorders, neuroimmune cells offer their decisive role for the elimination of toxic protein
28 aggregates, at least in the initial phase. However, the long duration of the generating stimuli results
29 in excessive, chronic inflammation and uncontrolled neuroimmunocyte activation finally being the
30 key player to further assist in tissue injury and disease progression. (Dukay et al., 2019) Therefore,
31 neuroinflammatory processes should be tightly regulated to maintain the balance between benefits
32 and the over-activated, harmful effects of the immune cells (Dukay et al., 2019).

33 In neurological conditions, microglia can be activated and secrete proinflammatory cytokines and
34 neurotoxic mediators, such as TNF- α , IL-1 β , IL-6, nitric oxide and ROS, which cause additional

1 neuroinflammation (Gelders et al., 2018; Neal and Richardson, 2018) and negatively influence
2 brain disease progression (Konovalova et al., 2019). Different factors, such as protein mutations,
3 oxidative stress and impairments in the protein quality control system, can lead to aggregates
4 formation and deposition, activating a neuroinflammatory response in DAT, PD and ALS/MND
5 (Reish and Standaert, 2015, Michaelson et al., 2017, Webers et al., 2020).
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9 Microglial activation in response to A β peptides might result in both positive and detrimental
10 effects in DAT patients (Webers et al., 2020). The physiological role is related with the clearance of
11 apoptotic bodies, A β , debris, with the secretion of neurotrophins and cytokines and the migration to
12 damaged tissues; the pathological role is activated by the detrimental effects of cytokine secretion,
13 the impaired A β clearance and the increased reactivity to NFTs (Webers et al., 2020).
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18 Inflammatory markers in peripheral blood can affect PD progression (Chen et al., 2020). Higher
19 levels of apoptotic leukocytes, nuclear DNA levels, and vascular cell adhesion molecule 1 levels in
20 PD patients were associated with the involvement of systemic inflammation (Chen et al., 2020).
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24 The association between neuroinflammatory response and ALS/MND has been investigated,
25 demonstrating macrophages and microglia migration in the spinal cord and peripheral nerve of the
26 transgenic rat model of ALS, as well as the innate and adaptive immune response activation and the
27 release of IL6, IL-17, TNF α and IFN γ (Michaelson et al., 2017).
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33 The proinflammatory response of microglial cells that function as brain macrophages (Ginhoux et
34 al., 2013) is activated by high temperature: the neuroinflammatory responses of microglial cells
35 play an important role in the process of brain dysfunction caused by heat, provoking release of
36 inflammatory cytokines and neurotoxic mediators, which exert additional neuroinflammation and
37 aggravate brain disease progression (Beckers et al., 2018).
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42 Prolonged heat exposure in mice resulted in a proinflammatory environment being characterized by
43 increased of the nuclear transcription factor NF- κ B signaling (Lee et al., 2015; Christoforidou et al.,
44 2020). The NF- κ B regulates multiple aspects of innate and adaptive immune functions such as
45 inflammatory T cells; stimulates the expression of various pro-inflammatory genes, including those
46 encoding cytokines (Liu et al., 2017). Moreover, prolonged exposure to heat upregulated the
47 expression of IL-1 β , IL-6, TNF- α , cyclooxygenase-2 and inducible nitric oxide synthase in
48 hippocampus with subsequent decrease in neuronal and synaptic density, and gliosis (Lee et al.,
49 2015; Christoforidou et al., 2020). High levels of circulating IL-6 showed the highest correlation
50 with neurological symptoms and morbidity of heat stress in patients and animal models (Suzuki et
51 al., 2020). Higher levels of cytokines in PD patients were positively correlated with higher
52 intraventricular temperature (Chen et al., 2020): correlation with brain temperature and PD
53 progression was studied in different age groups of PD patients (Chen et al., 2020).
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1 Neuroinflammation was also associated in heat-stressed (42°C) animals with systemic
2 inflammatory response (Leon and Helwig, 2010) and with dysfunction at the mitochondrial level
3 (White et al., 2012).
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5 Ultimately, heat exposure might cause neurodegeneration through the derangement of
6 mitochondrial function, the impairment of the biochemical processes amending protein misfolding
7 and the enhancement of oxidative stress, excitotoxicity and neuroinflammation, that can promote
8 further protein misfolding and aggregation in neurons exposed to unfavourable conditions.
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14 **6 Conclusions**

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16 Climate change is real global phenomenon, and it is rapidly and extensively disrupting ecosystems
17 worldwide. It has also been reported to have a dramatic impact on human health, although its
18 mechanisms are still far from being completely explained. In particular, the way the human body
19 reacts to being exposed to more frequent, longer and intense global warming is not yet completely
20 understood, and this makes the development of effective adaptation strategies rather challenging.
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25 In our review, we tried to underline specific pathways mediating the heat effects at cellular level.
26 Even if high temperatures positively affect certain protective mechanisms at the CNS level, the
27 harmful effects of an exposure to high temperature dominates, as it has been confirmed by findings
28 that long exposure to high temperatures definitely damages the nervous system in several ways.
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33 Thus, we would conclude that heat stress due to global warming can significantly increase the rate
34 of neurodegenerative disorders. Such a stress might cause DNA damage, protein misfolding and
35 aggregation, induction of apoptotic pathways and autophagy within neurons, which could further
36 expose susceptible cells to neurodegeneration. Our hypothesis is that certain mechanisms of heat
37 stressors stimuli might play a role in increasing the prevalence of neurodegenerative diseases and/or
38 worsening functionality of affected patients, whose thermoregulation results compromised.
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44 Climate change adaptation measures could include therapeutic intervention based on heat therapy
45 and/or acclimation, which tend to upregulate HSP expression (Hunt, 2020), providing
46 neuroprotective effects both in healthy and neurologically affected people. Indeed, the latter used to
47 undertake moderate to frequent sauna bathing are less prone to get DAT (Laukkanen, 2017), thus
48 opening a revolutionary scenario related with the potential benefits of passive heating for the
49 prevention of neurodegenerative diseases. Since setting a strict clinical (not observational
50 retrospective) study has been impossible so far, it might be conceived that the opposite effects of
51 chronic versus acute thermic stress are played within a certain temperature and temporal threshold
52 still to be assessed. At the moment, this remains only an alluring suggestion that should be
53 corroborated by further scientific evidence.
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Legends

Figure 1 Scheme of the main heat-affected pathways in brain cells.

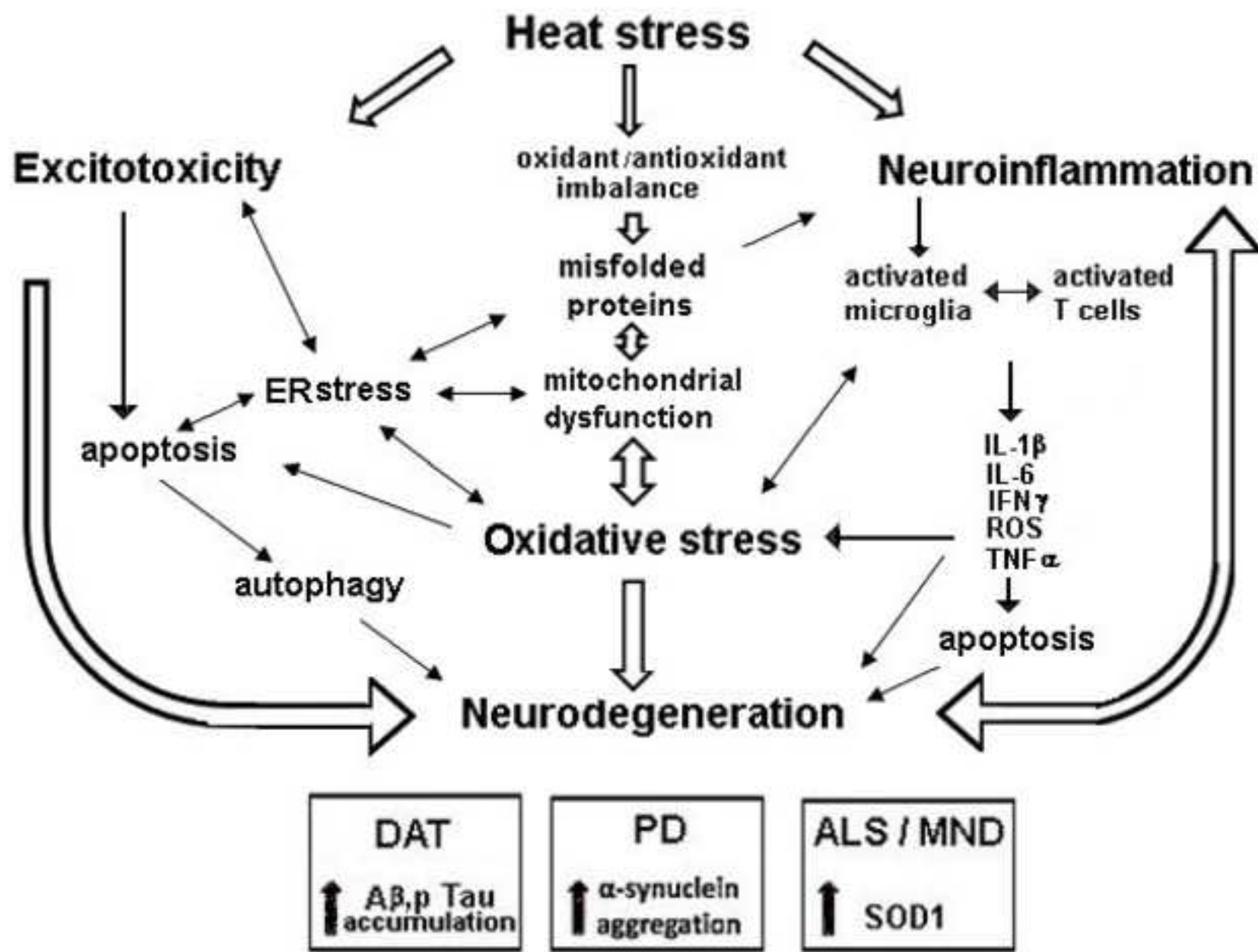
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Table 1. Glossary of terms, definitions of commonly used terms relating to heat conditions.

Heat wave	A period of 3 or more consecutive days during which the air temperature exceeds the average maximum temperature by 5 °C.
Heat stress	Perceived discomfort and physiological strain caused by exposure to a hot environment, especially during physical work.
Heat stroke	Severe condition marked by a core temperature > 40°C and central nervous system abnormalities such as delirium, convulsions, or coma resulting from exposure to environmental heat (<i>classic heat stroke</i>) or strenuous physical exercise (<i>exertional heat stroke</i>).
Heat exhaustion	Mild-to-moderate illness that can occur after exposure to high temperature, aggravated by water or salt deficiency; signs and symptoms include weakness, fatigue and discomfort with intense thirst; core temperature may be normal, below normal, or slightly elevated (> 37°C, but < 40°C).
Hyperthermia	A rise in body temperature above the hypothalamic set point when heat-dissipating mechanisms are impaired (by drugs or disease) or overwhelmed by external (environmental or induced) or internal (metabolic) heat.
Multiorgan-dysfunction syndrome	Continuum of changes that occur in more than one organ system after an insult such as trauma, sepsis, or heat stroke.

Table 2. Summary of the reported pathophysiologic mechanisms of heat stress toward neurodegeneration.

Diseases	Pathophysiologic mechanisms	<i>Key references</i>
<i>Neurodegenerative disease</i>	Enhanced oxidative stress and neuroinflammation leading to increased neurodegeneration	Reish et al., 2015, Michaelson et al., 2017, Webers et al., 2020
<i>DAT</i>	A β expression upregulation and phosphorylated Tau deposition HSP-60 loss of function	Campanella et al., 2018
<i>PD</i>	α -syn expression dysregulation	Fragniere et al., 2019
<i>MND</i>	Increased levels of phosphorylated HSF-1	Qu et al., 2018



Declaration of competing interest:

The Authors declare that they have no known competing interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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